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ABSTRACT

Along with messages from the editor and CACD's president, this issue offers: (1) "Counselors in Therapy: Who Heals the Healer?" (Priest); (2) "Early Intervention to Facilitate Employment of Persons with Spinal Cord Injury" (Orange, Brodwin and Johnson); (3) "Cultural Constraints and Career Choices of Asian-American Students: A Workshop Series" (Cheng); (4) "Survival of the School Counselor: A Workshop" (Gill-Wigal and Martinek); (5) "The Longitudinal Relationship of Congruency Between Initial and Final Selection of Major, Persistence, and Graduation of College Students" (Patrick, Niles, Margetiak, Cunning); (6) "Course Characteristics of CACREP Community Counseling Entry-Level Core Areas" (Cowger). The "Features" section includes: (1) "Embracing the Buddha: Reflections on the Emergence of Eclecticism" (Webb); (2) "Using the Mental Status Exam in Counseling" (Austin, Partridge and Bitner); (3) "Three Kinds of Patients Who Need Confrontation, With Emphasis on Sex Offenders" (Eisenman); (4) "New Look in Counseling and Guidance for the '70s and the Twenty-First Century: A Background Paper" (Rickman and Mitchell); (5) "Touch Someone" (Teal). Bibliographies are included. (BF)

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Volume 13 1992-93

CACD JOURNAL

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THE EDITOR'S MESSAGE

Pat Nellor Wickwire

The 1992-93 CACD theme, "Human Rights: Counselors' Concern for the Future," is reflected throughout this issue of the *CACD Journal.* Caring and concern are clear—in articles about the development of clients and counselors, and about the enhancement of professional theory and practice.

CACD President Richard Gonzales lauds the *CACD Journal* as a medium for growth, contribution, and recognition, and invites readers to appreciate and enjoy.

Ronnie Priest discusses unique considerations that arise when counselors becomes clients of counseling, and presents the possibilities of both positive and negative outcomes. Leo M. Orange, Martin G. Brodwin, and Sharon Johnson emphasize the essential participation of rehabilitation counselors in the vocational planning and development of clients with disabilities, and stress early intervention by the professional team.

W. David Cheng describes the processes and the results of a workshop series with Asian-American college students, with special emphasis on the interrelationships of cultural adjustment and career choice. Jan Gill-Wigal and Sherry A. Martinek describe the rationale, goals, and content of a graduate workshop for school counselors, and identify public relations and promotional skills for development.

John Patrick, Spencer Niles, Charlene Margetiak, and Tineke J. Cunning report research on the relationship of the congruency of initial and final selections of college majors, persistence, and graduation rates. Ernest L. Cowger, Jr., discloses the results of a survey of the ways in which CACREP-accredited community counseling programs meet entry-level requirements.

Three special *CACD Journal* feature sections are continued. In "Professional Practices in Counseling," Dwight Webb notes the contemporary use of eclecticism in counseling, and contrasts this with past professional practice. J. Sue Austin, Elizabeth Partridge, and Joe Bitner describe the use of the Mental Status Exam in counseling. Russell Eisenman discusses the usefulness of confrontation with some clients in counseling, specifically drug users, sex offenders, and prisoners.

In "Building the Counseling Profession," Geraldine Rickman and Leonard Mitchell, in an article reprinted from a special theme issue of the 1971-

72 *CPGA Journal (CACD Journal)*, identify special efforts for counseling skills expansion and project a profession of human development ecology for the twenty-first century.

In "The Personal Side of Counseling," Josie Teal reminds us to reach out and touch someone with concern and caring, in keeping with the 1992-93 CACD theme of human rights.

Counselors are invited to read this issue with pride and enjoyment, and to contribute to future issues.

CACD PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE

Richard Gonzales

The California Association for Counseling and Development offers a variety of personal and professional development activities and programs. The *CACD Journal* provides a forum for members to contribute to each other's personal and professional growth, as well as to be recognized for making an important contribution to the counseling field.

This is the thirteenth volume of the *CACD Journal*, the third under the leadership of Pat Nellor Wickwire. With each issue, more and more kudos come Pat's way for a job well done. Pat and her Editorial Board's hard work continues to insure that we have an excellent publication for the 1992-93 Volume 13.

The issue before you represents a well-rounded collection of articles with value for all counseling professionals. They provide you, the counselor, with information, insights, and opinions which run the gamut of counseling and human development concerns. I am highly impressed with their vitality, scope, and quality. I'm sure that you will be similarly impressed.

Read and enjoy.

Richard Gonzales is a Community College Counselor at Foothill College in Los Altos Hills, California.

Counselors in Therapy: Who Heals the Healer?

Ronnie Priest

Counselors as clients of counseling may bring unique issues and considerations into therapy. Variables that may impact on possible therapeutic outcomes and dilemmas that may confront therapists who have counselors as clients are addressed.

Engaging a counselor in therapy as a client may present an array of unique challenges. Counselors bring with them distinct characteristics that may have far-reaching ramifications for both the counselor and the counselor as patient (Freudenberger, 1990).

In this article the counselor receiving therapy is identified as the counselor-client and the practitioner providing the therapy is identified as the counselor.

Norcross, Strausser-Kirtland, and Missar (1988) determined that 504 (71%) of 710 psychotherapists reported at least one occurrence of receiving counseling from a practitioner. Garfield and Kurtz (1976) found that 539 (63%) of 855 therapists had entered counseling. Similar results were obtained by Deutsch (1985), with 174 (66%) of 264 therapists in his study reporting counseling.

The typical counselor-client, according to Garfield and Kurtz (1976), is more likely to be female, with presenting problems that include relationship difficulties and/or depression. In this study counselor-clients also presented to therapy with possible manifestations of substance abuse.

Unique Challenges

Fleischer and Wissler (1985) suggested that the counselor and the counselor-client may frequently collude in their relationship in order to sustain a therapeutic environment similar to that of the traditional counselor-patient relationship. They also suggested that counselor-clients may selectively ignore the dilemma(s) they pose for therapists. Similarly, counselors may be reluctant to admit feelings of vulnerability in therapeutic relationships with professional colleagues. Since both parties are invested in maintaining confidentiality, there is a paucity of research concerning this crucial relationship.

Existing research (Fleischer & Wissler, 1985) has identified four significant areas of potential difficulty in conducting counseling with counselor-clients: boundary issues, motivations, conflicts associated with being a client, and unique goals.

Boundary Issues

Norcross, Strausser, and Faltus (1988) suggested the counselor-client may tend to initiate a relationship with the counselor that is heavily based on camaraderie. The selection of a counselor outside of the immediate professional circle may minimize this possibility.

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Motivations

The motivations of both the counselor and the counselor-client may warrant close scrutiny. For the counselor-client, the motivation to enter counseling may be based on reasons ranging from an opportunity for continuing education to the resolution of personal problems. In addition to the obvious counselor motivation of desiring to help, being a counselor to a counselor-client may have narcissistic appeal. It is incumbent on all parties concerned to make honest evaluations of possible sources of difficulty.

Conflicts Associated With Being a Client

The counselor-client's discomfort with being a client may be centered around his or her desire to retain a sense of control or a fear of the loss of professional integrity. Assuming the role of counselor-client may serve as a source of concern for one usually seen as a healer. The counselor-client's sense of conflict or concern may be heightened if this counselor expects a greater degree of self-awareness and disclosure than she or he would from a client who is not a counselor (Fleischer & Wissler, 1986). This can be further compounded if the counselor is reluctant to accept the frailties of the counselor-client.

Unique Goals

The counselor-client's therapeutic goals may be dramatically different from those of traditional clients. In addition to personal problem resolution, the counselor-client may see the counseling sessions as an opportunity for exploration of the appropriateness of his or her career choice.

The reasons counselors furnish for entering or not entering counseling provide insights into the distinct issues associated with having counselors as clients. Norcross (1990) expressed concern that counselors frequently entered counseling as the results of training requirements as opposed to voluntarily seeking counseling. Norcross (1990) found, however, that 55% of the psychologists, psychiatrists, social workers, and counselors in his study had entered counseling for personal concerns. The next largest category (35%) cited personal and professional growth as the reason for entering counseling.

In a survey of psychotherapists (Deutsch, 1985) the prominent concerns expressed by counselor-clients were relationship difficulties (82%), depression (57%), substance abuse (11%), suicide ideations or attempts (5%), and other personal problems (14%), with some respondents reporting multiple personal issues. Norcross (1990) reported similar results, determining the three most frequently mentioned issues to be marital conflict (20%), depression (13%), and anxiety (12%).

An unanticipated finding (Deutsch, 1985) was that counselor-clients frequently have difficulty getting their significant others or spouses to enter counseling because of the perception that the counselor will ally with the counselor-client in a shared professional perspective. An additional interesting finding of the Deutsch (1985) study was that, while men and women counselors reported equal incidences of problems, women were more likely to pursue counseling.

Although the actual incidence of burnout seems relatively low (2% - 6%) among counselors (Farber, 1990), the extreme negative impact clearly war-

rants counselor intervention. Farber (1990) determined that the prevailing reported cause of burnout involved a situation where the counselor felt she or he was expending an amount of effort and energy that did not translate to the successful resolution of client concerns. Raquepaw and Miller (1989) suggested that counselors who work in agency settings are at greater risk for burnout than counselors who do not work in such settings. One possible explanation suggested for this phenomenon was the extensive client caseloads counselors in agency settings carry. Agency counselors frequently engage chronic and resistant clients in counseling, which may lead to a diminshed sense of efficacy (Farber, 1990).

The reasons counselors do not seek therapy may also be illuminating. The five most frequently reported reasons for not entering counseling (Deutsch, 1985) were: no acceptable counselor nearby that was respected or not already known (19%); help and support found from friends, family, or co-workers (18%); problem resolved before counseling was initiated (17%); fear of exposure, concerns about confidentiality, and fear of professional censure (10%); and belief that the counselor should be able to work things out by himself or herself (9%). Maslach (1982) suggested another possible cause for counselors' avoidance of counseling may be the implication that they are not emotionally or psychologically healthy.

Counselor Selection

Grunebaum (1983) identified four main criteria used by counselor-clients when choosing a counselor. The first criterion identified was that the counselor must be perceived as competent. Second was that the counselor be outside the social and professional network of the counselor-client. The third characteristic was that the counselor possess qualities of acceptance, caring, and support. The fourth consideration was that the counselor furnish feedback during counseling.

Buckley, Karasu, and Charles (1981) stated that the required counselor quality most pervasively reported by counselor-clients was that of feeling that the counselor liked them. This finding seemingly places a premium on counselors being able to demonstrate empathy. Norcross, Strausser, and Faltus (1988) corroborated the findings of Buckley et al. (1981) and Grunebaum (1983) with the results of their research showing that counselor competence, clinical experience, professional reputation, and personal warmth were the prominent counselor attributes desired by counselor-clients.

Benefits of Counseling

Norcross, Strausser-Kirtland, and Missar (1988) identified an increased appreciation of life, increased perceptions related to conducting therapy, diminished personal stress factors that allow the counselor-client to become a more effective counselor, personal validation of the counseling process, increased empathy, and the opportunity to learn from and model the counselor's methods and skills as benefits consistently reported as being derived from counseling by counselor-clients. Norcross (1990) reported that counselors related improvements in self-esteem, work functioning, social life, and characterological conflicts after personal counseling.

A careful examination of research literature does not furnish specific insight into the "best" or "most effective" theoretical approach for the coun-

selor-client in therapy. The counselor-client's own theoretical orientation, professional discipline, and presenting problems seemingly serve as significant determinants of the theoretical orientation to be used (Greenberg & Staller, 1981).

Unfortunately, not all reports of counseling outcomes are positive. Buckley et al. (1981) reported that counseling experiences viewed as deleterious by counselor-clients included: dreaming about the counselor, feelings that the counselor was the most important person in the counselor-client's life, and debilitating feelings of sadness because therapy had ended. Greenberg and Staller (1981) warned that undergoing counseling and continuing to function as a counselor simultaneously may be anti-therapeutic.

Conclusion

Counselors who seek counseling may represent a difficult population to engage in therapy. The challenges they present to counselors are both generalizable and situation-specific. Counselors may have a unique responsibility to their colleagues and the counseling profession to become aware of the specific considerations related to engaging counselor-clients in therapy.

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Early Intervention to Facilitate Employment of Persons With Spinal Cord Injury

Leo M. Orange, Martin G. Brodwin and Sharon Johnson

Rehabilitation counselors work as members of the rehabilitation team to help individuals with disabilities overcome obstacles and achieve more positive adjustment in medical, psychological, social, educational, and vocational dimensions. Counseling and early intervention can facilitate adjustment and vocational planning for individuals with spinal cord injury. The Americans with Disabilities Act is important legislation with a significant impact on the provision of counseling and educational services.

Counselors in the various disciplines will be involved with more clients with disabilities as a result of the provisions contained in the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA), passed in 1990. Although spinal cord injury is specifically addressed in this article, many of the ideas are relevant for a wide spectrum of disabilities. As the ADA becomes more fully understood and implemented, counselors and educators working in rehabilitation agencies, school settings, colleges and universities, mental health agencies, guidance centers, and other counseling settings will find an increasing need for strategies and techniques appropriate to meet the needs of their clients who have disabilities.

Initiation of Vocational Counseling

A concern of health professionals is when to initiate vocational counseling with a spinal cord injured patient. Some professionals believe an adjustment period of one to two years is necessary before a spinal cord injured individual is ready to consider vocational issues (Trieschmann, 1988). Others believe that vocational rehabilitation should be initiated when the person has become medically stable and has started a rehabilitation program, for example, physical and occupational therapy. Alfred, Fuhrer, and Rossi (1987) reported that it was not realistic to expect vocational planning to occur during inpatient medical rehabilitation or even within the first six months after hospital discharge. The injured person needs time to adjust to altered family, home, personal, and medical needs.

Other studies suggest that early vocational intervention should occur during the time of hospitalization and medical rehabilitation. Jellinek and Harvey (cited in Williams et al., 1989) reported a comparison between two groups of spinal cord injured inpatients; one group received early vocational intervention while the second group did not. Seventy-five percent of

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the first group were employed or in school within three years of hospital discharge, as compared to only 19% in the group not receiving early vocational rehabilitation services.

Vocational Planning

The authors believe it is important for a rehabilitation counselor to become involved as part of the professional team in the initial stages of medical rehabilitation of persons with spinal cord injury. This team consists of a physician, psychologist, nurse, occupational therapist, physical therapist, rehabilitation counselor, and social worker. The emphasis throughout treatment is on helping the individual in the psychosocial, educational, and vocational areas. Spinal cord injured (SCI) individuals need to view their own potential in employment, education, motivation, and functional limitations realistically. During the early phase of rehabilitation, vocational issues can be introduced by any team member. Vocational factors should be addressed early in the process, before the SCI patient begins to believe a return to work will not be possible. The client's active involvement in decision-making about future planning is a vital ingredient.

The advantages of having the rehabilitation counselor as part of the professional team include obtaining a comprehensive first-hand assessment, with input from other team members, of a client's strengths, weaknesses, and potential problem areas. Crewe and Krause (1987) reported that newly disabled individuals are essentially the same as they were before the disability (pre-morbid personality), with the same strengths and shortcomings they possessed before injury. Knowing how the person dealt with problems in the past helps the counselor understand the individual's learned social roles and the ways in which these roles have been interrupted. A counselor's early contact with the SCI individual facilities talking about potential vocational pursuits. Engaging the client in discussion of vocational issues soon after injury increases the chance of future success. Early intervention on the part of the counselor will facilitate this process.

Motivation and Goals

Self-efficacy theory is concerned with the personal self-judgments which influence the environments that people choose, the activities in which they engage, and the effort and persistence they demonstrate at a task in the face of obstacles (Bandura, 1982). Self-efficacy is a personal characteristic that affects the receptivity and potential success of the person with a disability at the beginning of vocational rehabilitation. A motivated individual will work with the counselor to identify what is important and achievable. According to various studies (Bandura, 1982, 1989; Betz & Hackett, 1981; Mitchell, Brodwin, & Benoit, 1990), clients low in self-efficacy will have problems achieving goals. Discussion with the patient about current and future goals, as well as encouragement about the possibility of a return to work, increases motivation for success. Kemp and Vash (1971) found a strong relationship between goals and productivity in SCI patients. They reported, in a sample of 50 persons, that those individuals without goals, regardless of age, were less productive. The most productive were younger persons with many goals. Older individuals with many goals were more productive than younger persons with no or few vocational goals. Motivation increases as the individual accepts the reality of the spinal cord injury.

Acceptance of one's disability, an important psychological hurdle to overcome in the individual's perception of self and in the ability to adapt to disability, leads to greater adjustment. Understanding the individual's characteristics prior to injury (pre-morbid personality) is also important in understanding the level of motivation and reasons for wanting to succeed. This information will help the counselor ascertain the person's acceptance of responsibility for vocational and educational planning, problem-solving, goal-setting, and realistic appraisal of previous performance at work or school. The individual also needs realistic understanding of functional limitations and how adaptation can minimize these limitations.

Rehabilitation Limitations and Legislation

The related concern of potential loss of benefits upon return to work must also be addressed. When an SCI person returns to work, there may be an accompanying loss of Social Security, Medicare, Medicaid, attendant care, and subsidized housing. There are issues to be confronted early in the rehabilitation process. Clients may profit financially by working rather than by collecting benefits. Individuals with spinal cord injury should also be informed about incentives which Social Security provides for people with disabilities who have the ability and desire to work.

Equally important are the benefits provided by the Employment Opportunities for Disabled Americans Act of 1986. This legislation makes it possible for individuals with disabilities to earn significant amounts without complete loss of benefits. This provision is applicable primarily to Supplemental Security Income (SSI) recipients. Social Security Disability Insurance (SSDI) beneficiaries can gain access to all of the work incentives under SSI through the Plan for Achieving Self-Support (PASS), if the SSI resource test is met.

Vocational Rehabilitation Components for Sustaining Employment

The fundamentals of vocational rehabilitation that help the client sustain employment or pursue educational goals are physical potential, mobility, and medical stability (Parker, 1987; Rubin & Roessler, 1987). The most important of these components is medical stability. To achieve medical stability, an SCI individual must accept the need to practice preventive medicine related to health issues endemic to spinal cord injury, for example, urinary tract infections, pressure sores, and need for consistent medical attention. Recurring illness may indicate that responsibilty for physical welfare has not been accepted and that the individual may not be ready to address vocational issues. The client must be sufficiently motivated in order to practice preventive medicine and remain medically stable.

Vash (1981) proposed a model that involves three stages of adjustment to disability. The SCI individual must (a) recognize and admit the extent and implications of the disability, (b) accept the implications caused by the disability, and (c) embrace the experience as an opportunity for learning. This last stage is a unique aspect of Vash's theory. Only a few individuals reach the point of embracing disability as a catalyst for psychological and spiritual growth (Crewe & Krause, 1987). The individual that is coping and adjusting to the disability, as well as caring about the need to maintain good health, may be ready for employment.

Physical Potential

Physical limitations associated with spinal cord injuries must be considered when establishing vocational goals. Assessments from physical and occupational therapists identify limitations and provide information needed to make the appropriate adaptations to allow for maximum functioning. This information is critical in identifying the services that are needed.

The process of vocational planning will be aided by information from all members of the rehabilitation team. Roessler (1982) reported an individual's physical, psychosocial, educational, vocational, and financial status must be addressed when considering viable vocational goals.

Mobility and the Americans With Disabilities Act (ADA)

Persons with spinal cord injury face substantial unemployment in the United States (West, 1991). According to DeVivo, Rutt, Stover, and Fine (1987), the employment rate rarely exceeds 50% and is often much lower. Bowe (1988), in a review of statistics on unemployment rates among persons with disabilities, concluded that no other minority group in the United States is as underrepresented in the world of work. The lack of mobility due to architectural, transportation, and telecommunication barriers may diminish as the ADA is implemented. Sections 503 and 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 mandated nondiscrimination and affirmative action for individuals with disabilities by employers that receive federal funds. The recent ADA legislation prohibits discrimination in four major areas: employment, transportation, telecommunications, and public services and accommodations.

This act goes beyond the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 by mandating that an employer is required to make an accommodation to the known disability of a qualified applicant or employee if it does not impose an undue hardship on the operation of the employer's business. A qualified applicant is a person who, with or without accommodation, can perform the essential functions of the job in question. Reasonable accommodation may include, but is not limited to, making facilities accessible, job restructuring, and acquiring or modifying equipment or services. The enactment of the ADA demonstrates that society is becoming cognizant of the needs of people with disabilities as related to the environment in which they function.

Rehabilitation counselors need to investigate and provide information on the improved employment opportunities for people with disabilities that the ADA provides. This is a key issue when an SCI person and counselor identify the reasonable accommodation needed in considering employment or exploring vocational goals.

The ADA and the provisions of this legislation provide important information and tools to assist counselors in becoming more effective advocates for their clients. Mobility is a crucial issue for the SCI individual in the assessment of vocational possibilities. Information pertaining to the ADA and how it substantially diminishes obstacles that affect mobility and employment opportunities for persons with disabilities can serve to empower clients.

Vocational Assessment

Successful vocational outcomes are dependent on the initial assessment, training, placement, support, and follow-up that individuals with severe disabilities (such as SCI) receive. Vocational assessment should be started when

the SCI patient is in the post-acute phase of rehabilitation and continue as an ongoing process. Ongoing assessment allows the counselor to obtain a comprehensive behavioral and clinical view of the needs, desires, and vocational goals of the individual.

Frey and Godfrey (1991) suggested that assessment begin with an in-depth clinical interview to formulate a functional vocational profile. The interview includes work history, identification of skills, transferability of work skills, work or vocational interests, social functioning, and illness limitations. Social and environmental factors that also have impact include transportation, economic concerns, and architectural barriers. The process of assessment must be individualized to accommodate the specific needs of the individual due to the physical differences of each injury and the unique characteristics of the client.

The rehabilitation counselor can utilize a clinical or analytical approach to identify the specific behaviors critical to enhancing vocational retention, such as environmental factors, support dimensions, illness, or personal factors. Personal factors include the individual's likes and dislikes, deficits or limitations, skills and abilities, sociability, job preferences, and vocational maturity. This analytical approach is helpful in maximizing the individual's strengths and capabilities and minimizing deficits, and thus promoting personal and vocational growth.

Counseling SCI Individuals

A major purpose of counseling in the rehabilitation process is to aid the client in developing a level of independence that will allow maximum functioning (Crewe & Krause, 1987). The counselor must remain focused on realistic and appropriate rehabilitation objectives, and not attempt to resolve psychological factors that are not limitations to the client.

Accessing and understanding all available information is the first step in providing encouragement and enhancing motivation to live a productive life and function as independently as possible. By alleviating concerns regarding external negative factors in the environment over which the SCI individual may not have any control, the counselor influences the person to become part of a support system that can help reintegration into society.

Support System and Follow-up

Continued support from the entire rehabilitation team is necessary throughout the vocational and rehabilitation process. With a support system in place and proper hospital discharge planning, the transition to home and community is less stressful.

The family is encouraged to participate in the rehabilitation process. Den, Phillips, and Reiss (1989) suggested that the family's involvement is vital for a successful outcome. A family's support and understanding of the emotional and physical ramifications involved with SCI help to facilitate rehabilitation. The family can help motivate and influence the individual in pursuing vocational goals.

One of the family's most important functions in the rehabilitation process is supporting the social adjustment of the SCI individual in dealing with avocational or recreational issues. The family can help the SCI individual

learn to use leisure time productively. Having hobbies or returning to social activities helps in the adjustment to living a normal life.

Conclusion

The counselor of an SCI individual must assess medical care and physical and occupational rehabilitation skills in helping the person function to the best ability within the limitations of the injury, and also focus on helping the person manipulate the environment and the people within it in a positive way to achieve optimal vocational, social, medical, and economic capacity. Vocational issues can be introduced as part of the total program, along with psychological, physical, and occupational therapy. Cnaan, Blankertz, Messinger, and Gardner (1988) suggested that work is one of the most valued activities in our society and is an essential and integral part of life. Vocational rehabilitation provided for SCI individuals before hospital discharge can help prepare them for returning to mainstream society. The person recently discharged from the hospital needs knowledge of resources available, and development of skills in how to pursue vocational goals in order to achieve vocational success and satisfaction with life.

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Cultural Constraints and Career Choices of Asian-American Students: A Workshop Series

W. David Cheng

Fifty Asian-American university students participated in a series of five weekly workshops regarding career choice. The workshops targeted interrelated cultural adjustment areas: social comfortability and self-esteem, language skills and the expression of personal goals, assertiveness training, identifying various sources of stress and anxiety, and acculturation and career choice.

One of the major goals of career counseling is to make students aware of their choices and options. A review of the literature on career development of Asian-Americans reveals a stark deficiency in research on the profound, and often negative, influence which racial and cultural factors have on career choice. For example, why do Asian-American students so often limit themselves to such career choices as accountant, engineer, and research scientist? Why are they rarely interested in careers that require more artistic, human-interactive, or verbal skills?

Maykovich (1976) offered persuasive explanations such as Asian-Americans' difficulties with the English language, cultural characteristics such as restraint of strong feelings, and the idea that Asian-Americans view education as acquiring a saleable skill. Chun (1980) discussed the role of the successful "model minority" myth in covering up occupational constraints and inequities. Leong (1985) identified the following variables as important and relevant in Asian-American career development: isolation of occupational choice and interest; occupational values that reflect Asian-American culture; the process of acculturation and assimilation; societal and cultural barriers to occupational aspirations, for example, stereotypes; and characteristic personality traits, such as positing an external focus of control, experiencing societal anxiety, and finding ambiguity intolerable.

It is important for counselors not to overgeneralize from any pattern of occupational segregation to individual cases. Counselors should also be fully aware of the individual differences which are moderated by personality traits and level of acculturation. But now that Leong has identified variables which have traditionally limited Asian-American career choices, can we effectively introduce intervention strategies which address the issues of cultural constraints?

A Career Workshop Series

In an effort to broaden the career choices and identify the needs of Asian-American students, a series of five weekly one-hour workshops at the counseling center targeted specific areas which may hinder growth and adjustment regarding career choice. The term cultural "adjustment," rather than "assimilation," characterized the workshops, since they were designed to

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help students become aware of choices and resources available for overcoming barriers — without encouraging loss of ethnic identity. To that end, the program plan focused on the major interrelated issues: self-esteem, language skills, assertiveness, stress, and level of acculturation. Four questionnaires (see Appendix) were developed to administer before the first four workshops, on (a) social comfortability, (b) self-expression and personal goals, (c) assertiveness, and (d) stress. The Strong Vocational Interest Inventory (Strong, 1938) was administered before the fifth workshop.

Although some students missed one or more workshops, all the students attending responded to the pre-session questionnaires and the Strong Vocational Inventory.

Participants were 50 Asian-American students (60% male and 40% female, with an age range of 19 to 25 years). Responding to notices at the University Asian clubs and freshman orientation seminars, the students volunteered to participate in the workshops, which were held under the auspices of the counseling center. Students from Taiwan, China, Japan, Korea, Vietnam, and Malaysia constituted 40% of the total participants. The largest single group of respondents (40%), who originated from Hong Kong, identified both parents as primarily part of the skilled labor force (father, 60%; mother, 46.7%). The other major occupational group for parents was mercantile (19% overall), with 13.4% of the parents identified as professionals. All respondents hoped to earn the Bachelor's degree, with 50% certain of finishing and 26.6% planning graduate study. Those who indicated they might not finish college pointed to issues of good job offers and poor study skills.

The Five Group Sessions

Session 1: Social Comfortability and Self-Esteem

The first workshop sought to develop cultural sensitivity and to identify particular and serious needs of Asian students. Special attention was given to learning names, including discussion of the difficulty of Asian (as different from Western or Christian) names. It seemed that students with Western names were better remembered, and a name remembered contributed to popularity and self-confidence. More than merely getting acquainted, then, an attempt was made to challenge the "low self-concept" Asian-Americans have (Asamen & Berry, 1987). Low self-esteem has to do with confusion or lack of self-identity. Studies have shown, for example, that Japanese-Americans and Chinese-Americans often feel less autonomous and more socially isolated, anxious, nervous, alienated, and rejected than Caucasian students do (Sue & Kirk, 1973). Counselors need to be alert to such feelings of inadequacy, even though it has been well-argued that appearances of low self-concept may often be the result of cultural values of humility, modesty, and being strict with oneself (White & Chan, 1983). One helpful correction was to explore and affirm the diversity of Asian heritage, placing value on a student's source of origin.

The social comfortability questionnaire administered to the respondents prior to their participation in this workshop was a 25-question inventory with four subscales, including social interaction, social similarity, need for affiliation, and cultural difference. Most striking in the overall scale was the indication that 61% of the respondents indicated a lack of comfort with and

confidence in their place in the world. Beyond this, the scores for the individual issues in the overall scale were in relatively normal distribution. In terms of the subscales, the most striking indication was that 26.8% of the respondents felt no need for affiliation with this culture.

Session 2: Language Skills and the Expression of Personal Goals

Many students were recent immigrants or first-generation Asian-Americans, so that English was not spoken by their parents at home, and problems with English as a second language were almost inevitable. Therefore, information on opportunities and resources to improve communication in conversational and written English was shared. Ways to improve speaking, reading, and writing skills were discussed, underscoring the value and importance of social interaction, television, films, books, and verbal hobbies. This session sought to overcome the stereotype that Asian-Americans avoid human interaction because they feel more comfortable with numbers and machines than with human beings (Maykovich, 1976).

The self-expression and personal goals questionnaire administered at the beginning of this session showed that 83.4% of the respondents felt they knew "what was right for them," while 50% were unsure whether they would be comfortable with their present choices in the future. Similarly, while 83.4% indicated that family background was highly influential, 66% disagreed with relinquishing personal goals in an effort to maintain the integrity of that influence. Further, 75% of the respondents revealed that they harbored doubts about their life direction, and 83.3% indicated a definite need for more self-discovery.

Session 3: Assertiveness Training

The linkages of mental health, self-esteem, and the assertive expression of one's thoughts and feelings have been carefully studied (Pedersen, 1976; Alberti, 1977; Fukuyama & Greenfield, 1983). In the third session cultural differences were discussed, and culturally appropriate assertiveness was defined and practiced. Situations were explored through role-playing, for example: (a) parent-child, in conflict over the time to return home from a concert; (b) teacher-student, to discover the reason for a disappointing grade; (c) friend-friend, one reluctant to extend another loan; and (d) interviewer-interviewee, for employment or school admission.

In the questionnaire evaluating assertiveness prior to the workshop, 70% of the respondents indicated that events in their lives were beyond their control, and 80% indicated that not being able to predict the outcome of a situation was anxiety-provoking. Further, 70% identified themselves as of a compromising nature, and 60% indicated that they would go to great lengths in order to avoid a conflict, either social or familial.

Session 4: Identifying Various Sources of Stress and Anxiety

In this session, attention was given to stress management, especially time and family stress, and to coping with pressure to excel academically. By now, the group was more open, so that students could discuss personal stress and pressures that might limit their career choices. Students met in small groups and, after discussion, listed their precipitators of stress. These ranged from talking to strangers, making friends, and performing well on the job or at school, to crime, problems with housing, and filling out tax returns.

In the stress questionnaire, 66.7% of respondents indicated that they felt less anxious when in control of a situation or the outcome of a situation, and 83.3% indicated that they were anxious when they could not predict the outcome of a situation. Further, 66.7% of respondents noted that stress produced an avoidant behavior pattern in both their social life and school work.

Session 5: Acculturation and Career Choice

Having gone through the various stages of the workshop, students were now ready to explore their particular vocational interests fully. Before the final group session, the Strong Vocational Interest Inventory was administered. The diversity of vocational interests was discussed in the group vis-a-vis level of acculturation and gender differences. An exercise to help here was "occupational daydreaming," allowing students freely to imagine vocations of their choice. Then individual sessions were held for each student to review assessment results, with emphasis on individual understanding of the particular area of interest. These sessions provided an informal but personal evaluation of the workshops. Students varied in their responses as to which workshops they found most valuable. In both group and individual sessions, verbal feedback was vital, to assure increased awareness of interests, skills, and values.

Overcoming the Stereotypical Career Choice: The Case of Kwok

The experience of Kwok, 19, an immigrant from Hong Kong three years ago, demonstrates the value of career counseling that challenges cultural stereotyping. Kwok's family came to New York because they were afraid of future political events. His parents had no secondary education; his father worked in a restaurant, and his mother was a seamstress. Despite their difficulties here, they felt that their children would have better futures in this country. Kwok's spoken English was poor, but he was pleasant and talkative in the first group session. He was an enthusiastic participant despite language barriers that still existed even though he had started studying English at 13 in Hong Kong.

On the Scholastic Aptitude Test, Kwok did well in math, but poorly in English. He had enrolled at Baruch College business school, majoring in accounting. In the individual session after the workshops, Kwok revealed the secret of having little interest in business. He had chosen his major primarily due to family and peer pressure, where the concern was "only in making money." He felt he liked to work with people and enjoyed helping people, but he was embarrassed to admit that he wanted to be a social worker: "It doesn't pay—and my English isn't good enough." The Strong Vocational Interest Inventory indicated high interest on the Social theme, and the workshop series helped him realize his true personal interest, so that he could dare to consider new alternatives.

Conclusion

Career counseling is one of the most important services provided in academic institutions. Often students who would never make an appointment with a psychologist are introduced through career counseling to introspection which proves therapeutic. But even if minority students do not seem unduly troubled by the stereotyping society imposes on them, efforts are

urgently needed to expose and challenge the constraints that are likely to inhibit freedom in choosing one's life-work. Few issues in students' lives are as significant as following their vocation; Asian-Americans need special attention in order to assure the discovery of and response to their inner truths and talents. The areas of focus described above may seem unrelated to career counseling, yet they are essential to prepare Asian-American students for genuine vocational choice.

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Appendix

Baruch College
Office of Counseling and Psychological Services
Demographic Inventory

1. Your sex is:
   1. Male
   2. Female

2. Your age is: _____

3. You are originally from:
   1. Hong Kong
   2. Taiwan
   3. People's Republic of China
   4. Vietnam
   5. Japan
   6. Korea
   7. Other (specify) _____

4. Your father's occupation:
   1. Professional
   2. Semi-Professional
   3. Mercantile
   4. Skilled Labor
   5. Unskilled Labor
   6. Other (specify) _____

5. Your mother's occupation:
   1. Professional
   2. Semi-Professional
   3. Mercantile
   4. Skilled Labor
   5. Unskilled Labor
   6. Other (specify) _____

6. Expected education:
   1. College, less than B.A.
   2. B.A. or equivalent
   3. 1 or 2 years graduate (M.A.)
   4. Doctoral degree (Ph.D., M.D.)

7. Reasons for terminating education:
   1. Absolutely certain that I will finish
   2. To accept a good job
   3. To enter the military
   4. Marriage
   5. Disinterest in study
   6. Poor performance
   7. Poor study skills
   8. Other (specify) _____

Social Comfortability Questionnaire

The following scale is designed to measure some of your feelings and attitudes toward a culture which is different from your own. There are no right or wrong answers; the responses are only an expression of how you feel about living in this culture.

To respond to the statements below, enter a number to the left of each statement expressing to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement using the following scale.

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
−3	−2	−1	0	+1	+2	+3

_____ 1. I make friends easily.

_____ 2. I find it easy to talk in groups.

_____ 3. Most of my friends are similar to myself.

_____ 4. My friends are very culturally different from each other.

_____ 5. Most of the people with whom I associate are Asians.

_____ 6. I am more comfortable with other people who have similar Asian backgrounds as myself.

_____ 7. I find it difficult to participate in non-academic activities when I am not familiar with the other group members.

_____ 8. When I feel that I have something to contribute, I speak up readily.

_____ 9. I go along with the crowd easily, afraid to make waves or cause a disruption.

_____ 10. When someone criticizes me, I withdraw and change the way I behave in order to please him/her.

_____ 11. I often feel that I don't have as much to contribute as others might, so I don't speak up.

_____ 12. Sometimes I feel that people in this culture will not take me seriously becaure I am different.

_____ 13. I am confident of my place in this culture and feel comfortable with it.

_____ 14. I feel that Asian culture has had a strong, positive influence on this culture.

_____ 15. I wish that the older Asian generation would give up their Old World ways and become more like the people in this culture.

_____ 16. I admire the people of this culture more than I admire the people of my own culture.

_____ 17. I often don't invite my friends from this culture to my home because I am embarrassed by how old-fashioned my parents act.

_____ 18. I try very hard to fit in with my acquaintances from this culture.

_____ 19. I sometimes find myself doing and saying things with which I am not really comfortable in order to fit in.

_____ 20. I often urge my Asian friends to give up Old World traditions and values as completely as possible.

_____ 21. I often feel a conflict of values between my cultural background and American culture.

_____ 22. I feel that the values which I have learned from my culture help me to function better in this culture.

_____ 23. Sometimes my race makes me uncomfortable.

_____ 24. I feel that, in many ways, my culture is superior to American culture.

Self-Expression and Personal Goals Questionnaire

The following scale is designed to measure some of your feelings and attitudes regarding your career decisions. There are no right or wrong answers; the responses are only an expression of how you feel about living in this culture. Please answer as honestly as possible.

To respond to the statements below, enter a number to the left of each statement expressing to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement using the following scale.

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
−3	−2	−1	0	+1	+2	+3

_____ 1. I have come to some conclusions about who I am and this has influenced what I wish to do with my life and career.

_____ 2. My decision about a career is or will be based upon what I understand to be right for me.

_____ 3. I feel confident that in 10 or 15 years I will be comfortable with the choices which I have made now.

_____ 4. My cultural background has influenced my decisions more than my goals and desires.

_____ 5. I have goals of my own, but it is more important to please my parents and family before I please myself.

_____ 6. I may choose a certain career direction, although I am not completely comfortable with it, because I feel it is a "more correct" choice than any choice which I might make on my own.

_____ 7. My other interests sometimes interfere with my focus and what I "should" be doing.

_____ 8. Sometimes I find my other interests to be more important than the academic/career path which I have chosen to pursue.

_____ 9. There are more important things in this life than career goals and making money.

_____ 10. I wish to get more out of what I choose to do with my life than a big paycheck and luxurious lifestyle.

_____ 11. I am willing to create conflict in my life in order to pursue my own goals.

_____ 12. I have no doubt about what I wish to do with my life and career.

_____ 13. I have a timetable of goals which governs the path which I have chosen to pursue.

_____ 14. I need to find out more about myself before I make a decision about my life's pursuit.

_____ 15. For me, career growth must include aspects of personal growth to be truly rewarding.

Assertiveness Questionnaire

The following scale is designed to measure some of your feelings and attitudes toward specific social situations and society in general. There are no right or wrong answers; the responses are only an expression of how you feel you interact with the social system which surrounds you.

To respond to the statements below, enter a number to the left of each statement expressing to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement using the following scale.

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
−3	−2	−1	0	+1	+2	+3

_____ 1. Dominant people make me anxious.

_____ 2. Even if I have made up my mind about something, there is a good chance that I will change my mind in order to better suit the other people in the situation.

_____ 3. I find it easy to talk in groups.

_____ 4. There are times when I feel that the things that happen in my life are beyond my control.

_____ 5. I am both comfortable with and confident in my place in the world.

_____ 6. When I can't predict what's going to happen in a situation, I get anxious.

_____ 7. I find it difficult to participate in a situation when I am unfamiliar with that situation or the people in it.

_____ 8. When I feel that I have something to contribute, I speak up readily.

_____ 9. I may go along with other people in a group decision because I don't wish to offend anyone.

_____ 10. My emotions are very close to the surface and I express them readily.

_____ 11. I often feel that I don't have as much to contribute as others might, so I don't speak up.

_____ 12. If I believe that doing what I want to do will cause conflict, I will continue on the path that I am following in order to avoid that conflict.

_____ 13. When a dominant person enters into a situation in which I previously had control, I am likely to let the person take that control from me with little resistance.

_____ 14. When something angers or pleases me, I am quick to express it.

_____ 15. I like to let others think that they are in control of a situation, when I know that, in reality, I am the one who is in control.

Stress Questionnaire

The following scale is designed to measure some of your feelings and attitudes toward stress and how it affects you. There are no right or wrong answers; the responses are only an expression of how you feel about the daily stresses which you may encounter.

To respond to the statements below, enter a number to the left of each statement expressing to what extent you agree or disagree with each statement, using the following scale or filling in the blank, as is indicated.

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
−3	−2	−1	0	+1	+2	+3

_____ 1. I am less anxious when I know that I am in control of a situation.

_____ 2. My past experience in a situation is usually a fairly good predictor of what my future experiences in that same situation will be like.

_____ 3. When I fail at something repeatedly, I am convinced that I will not experience a positive outcome in that situation and, therefore, I stop trying.

_____ 4. There are times when I feel that the things which happen in my life are beyond my control.

_____ 5. I work well under pressure.

_____ 6. When I can't predict what's going to happen in a situation, I get anxious.

_____ 7. When I experience a great deal of stress in relation to some task or situation, I either avoid that situation or procrastinate about doing the task.

_____ 8. There are many types of stress; some are positive and some are negative.

_____ 9. I tend to put a great deal of pressure on myself in relation to what I think are other people's expectations of me.

10. I experience the most pressure in my life from:

_____

_____ 11. There are times that the stress in my life gets so great that I have trouble getting done what needs to be done.

_____ 12. When I am experiencing a stressful situation, I have a variety of methods for coping with it.

_____ 13. I cope with stress very well.

14. Three of my favorite methods for coping with stress are:

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

15. Three of the most stressful situations I can think of are:

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

Survival of the School Counselor: A Workshop

Jan Gil-Wigal and Sherry A. Martinek

A four-day graduate workshop which addressed critical issues surrounding counselor role and counselor public relations is reviewed.

School counseling is undergoing a transition. For many reasons, including educational reform, the role and function of the school counselor are changing (Stewart & Avis, 1984). Both academic achievement (Monson & Brown, 1985; Stewart & Avis, 1984) and non-academic concerns, including teenage pregnancy and suicide, alcoholism, and divorce (Farrar & Hampel, 1987), are receiving emphasis.

The public is demanding measurable outcomes of counseling (Medis & Wilson, 1985). Currently nationwide statistics show a ratio of 420 students per counselor (Kaltenbach, 1988). These events and others cause confusion about counselor identity, mission, and role (Boy & Pine, 1980); counselors often lack a clear sense of direction (Bencivenga, 1988). Counselors also appear to lack the skills for promoting themselves and their profession (Miles, 1986). Visibility, communication, and public relations skills are current imperatives for school counselors.

A four-day graduate workshop addressing critical issues surrounding counselor role and counselor public relations is reviewed in this article.

The Workshop

"Survival of the Counselor" included content which responded to the informal needs assessment conducted prior to the workshop. Lectures, discussions, and work sessions were conducted by school counselors, school administrators, counselor educators, representatives from business, and mental health agency representatives.

Each school counselor who enrolled was required to participate in all sessions, and also to develop a public relations project for his or her work site. Continuing education units were available to school counselors for license renewals.

Rationale

Because of recent cutbacks in counseling services and positions, counselors have been forced to demonstrate their effectiveness. Traditionally, counselors have not been trained in this area; consequently, they are not experts in promoting their image. This workshop was designed specifically to invite counselors to learn public relations skills in order to increase their visibility and to clarify their role with administrators, teachers, students, and parents.

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Content

The role of the school counselor was addressed throughout the workshop, including effective integration within teams of specialists (Abelson & Woodman, 1983; Humes & Hohenshil, 1987) and collaboration with teachers and administrators (College Entrance Examination Board [CEEB], 1986).

Findings in professional literature related to the development of successful programs were reported: (a) the needs assessment (Medis & Wilson, 1985; Monson & Brown, 1985; CEEB, 1986); (b) goals and objectives (Monson & Brown, 1985); (c) the written program (Medis & Wilson, 1985); (d) the development of student potential as the program emphasis (CEEB, 1986); (e) the collaboration of schools and community agencies (CEEB, 1986); (f) evaluating and publicizing the program (Medis & Wilson, 1985; Monson & Brown, 1985); (g) the program audit (Monson & Brown, 1985); and (h) administrative support (Medis & Wilson, 1985; Monson & Brown, 1985).

The importance of the school counselor in referrals to community agencies was stressed. Mutual agency and school needs for articulation, communication, and cooperation were discussed, along with shared ideas for exchange visitations and cooperative programs.

The image of the school counselor was also addressed throughout the workshop. School administrators presented strategies to interpret and enhance the school counselor's role: staff inservice programs, presentations to school boards, and publication of guidance newsletters. A panel of business representatives offered public relations ideas for adaptation to school settings.

Initially, the participants demonstrated resistance to projecting themselves in a positive light, indicating their belief that school counselors should remain humble and that they would feel reticent about "blowing their own horns." As the discussion unfolded, it became apparent that the counselors lacked assertiveness skills and would benefit from future training in this area.

Workshop participants shared information about their public relations projects: a needs assessment instrument, a newsletter, brochures, a videotape, a radio announcement, and a television announcement.

Evaluation

Informal evaluation rated the assigned public relations project the most useful activity of the workshop. Participants recommended more opportunities for participant interaction in future workshops. The counselor educators who initiated the workshop plan to incorporate public relations and assertiveness training into their school counselor education program.

Recommendations

The survival of the school counselor is dependent upon appropriate adaptation to changing conditions, and upon the understanding and appreciation of school and community professionals.

This workshop on the image and role of the school counselor should be repeated in order to reinforce counselors' development of promotional skills.

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The Longitudinal Relationship of Congruency Between Initial and Final Selection of Major, Persistence, and Graduation of College Students

John Patrick, Spencer Niles, Charlene Margetiak, and Tineke J. Cunning

This study investigated the relationship of congruency between initial and final selection of major, persistence, and graduation rates of 372 students attending a lower division campus of a major comprehensive public university. Results indicated no difference in the graduation rates of college students by intended degree level (associate versus baccalaureate) or by congruency between initial and final selection of major. Associate degree students exhibiting high levels of congruency were not as persistent as those with low levels of congruency.

According to Holland's (1973, 1985) theory of career choice, congruence, defined as the degree of fit between a person's personality and the work environment, is directly related to career development and educational behavior. Holland has identified six occupational environments (Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional) and has described the work tasks and personality characteristics predominant to each environment. Individuals who locate work environments that are congruent with their personalities are more likely to be satisfied with their selection of occupations and will tend to persist longer in these occupations (Spokane, 1985).

Utilizing Holland's construct of congruence, researchers have linked congruence to higher academic achievement (Pichl & Clark, 1984; Wiley & Magoon, 1982), satisfaction with selection of major (Bruch & Kreishok, 1981; Spokane, 1979), and greater persistence (Barak & Rabbi, 1982; Bruch & Kreishok, 1981) among baccalaureate degree students. Blustein et al. (1986) note that students with unfocused career goals over an extended time period often feel less involved with their education and seem to have greater difficulty performing effectively within academic settings. Additionally, Titley and Titley (1985) reported that during the first two years of college, change of major and student persistence were related to the degree of subjective certainty reported by students who had a specific major when applying to college and had maintained their initial choice.

The relationship between congruency and educational outcomes has not been fully examined. Most of this research has focused on the academic

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achievement and persistence of baccalaureate degree matriculants to the exclusion of students enrolled in associate degree programs. There has also been no reference in the literature to the relationship of congruency and graduation from college. The purpose of this study is to investigate whether student persistence and graduation by intended degree (associate, baccalaureate) is related to congruence between initial and final selection of major among college students attending a campus of a geographically dispersed major public university.

Method

Sample

Participants in the current study included 372 students who matriculated full-time as first-time freshmen in associate and baccalaureate degree programs at the DuBois Campus of The Pennsylvania State University for the fall 1984 and 1985 semesters. These students represented 82% of the combined total freshman population (453 students). The DuBois Campus, located in rural North Central Pennsylvania, is primarily a commuter campus with an average total student population of 940 students.

Measures

The data needed for the measurement of graduation and persistence variables were extracted from the official university data base. In order to ascertain the degree of congruency between a student's initial and final selection of major, each initial and final choice of major was first converted into a three-digit Holland code, for example, Psychology = SIE (Rosen, Holmberg, & Holland, 1989). Students were permitted to declare an initial or final major of undecided, as a Holland code exists for this category of major. Congruence was then measured by the "similarity (or agreement) between the three-letter codes" (Iachan, 1990, p. 177) and represented as the Iachan Congruence Index (ICI). The ICI, computed through the use of statistical procedures outlined by Iachan (1984, 1990), is considered the best technique for measuring the congruence between three-letter Holland codes (Holland, 1985). Multiple regression statistical procedures from the STATVIEW II statistical computer software program (Feldman, Gagnon, Hoffmann, & Simpson, 1987) were utilized to evaluate the data. The level for statistical significance was set at $p < .05$.

Results

A two-way analysis of variance was conducted to determine if the populations sampled for this study varied significantly in academic ability by year of matriculation (1984, 1985) and by intended degree level (associate, baccalaureate). Individual Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) scores were used to measure academic ability. Results indicated that there were no significant differences in mean SAT scores according to year of matriculation, ($F(1) = .484$, $p = .487$), or intended degree level, ($F(1) = .547$, $p = .460$). Consequently, the student samples for 1984 and 1985 were combined within intended degree level.

A multiple regression analysis was conducted to ascertain the relationship between level of congruence and the graduation and persistence of associate and baccalaureate matriculants as measured by the ICI. The results of the analysis are reported in Table 1. For associate degree matriculants, 7% of

the variance in the ICI was explained by student graduation and persistence. The number of semesters completed ($r = -.19$, $p < .001$) demonstrated a negative relationship with the ICI of associate degree matriculants. Number of semesters completed and graduation failed to produce a significant effect on the ICI for baccalaureate degree matriculants.

Table 1
Standardized Regression Coefficients for the Effect of Semesters Completed and Graduation on the Iachan Congruence Index

Associate Degree Matriculants

Activity	Coefficient
Graduation	.09
Semesters Completed	-.31***

n = 147 R = .286 R squared = .069

Baccalaureate Degree Matriculants

Activity	Coefficient
Graduation	.03
Semesters Completed	-.04

n = 225 R = .035 R squared = .001

*** $p < .001$

Discussion

Associate degree students in this study who obtained a higher degree of congruence completed fewer semesters in college than students with lower levels of congruence. This relationship was expected, since highly congruent associate degree students seem more likely to remain with their initial selections of major or their changes into majors similar in academic content, thus requiring fewer semesters to complete their degrees. Correspondingly, students with lower levels of congruence would be more likely to switch into majors that would necessitate taking more semesters in order to complete their studies.

Contrary to existing theoretical expectations, no differences between levels of congruency and the persistence of baccalaureate degree students included in this study were detected. This is surprising in light of previous research (Barak & Rabbi, 1982; Bruch & Krieshok, 1981) that would suggest baccalaureate students exhibiting high levels of congruency between initial and final selection of major would be more likely to persist in college than students with lower levels of congruence. This finding indicates that perhaps congruency only has a significant correlation with persistence during the first two years of a student's program of study and that other noncognitive factors such as learning styles (Nisbet, Ruble, & Schurr, 1982), positive self-image (Tracey & Sedlacek, 1980), motivation for academic work (Baker & Siryk, 1984), locus of control (Williamson & Creamer, 1988), college satisfaction (Edwards & Waters, 1982; Starr, Betz, & Menne, 1972), and peer group influence (Bers, 1986) may have more predictive validity for persistence among baccalaureate degree-seeking students.

No significant relationship was found between graduation by intended degree level and congruency. This finding suggests that congruency between initial and final selection of major is not as useful a variable in predicting the graduation of college students as originally hypothesized. Perhaps congruency has only an indirect effect on graduation mediated by individual attributes, family background, financial aid, high school academic and social experiences, goal commitment, college satisfaction, academic achievement, extracurricular activities, and faculty-student interactions that were not considered in this study.

The results of this study suggest that the relationship of congruency between initial and final selection of major and persistence is affected by intended degree level and that there is no significant relationship between congruency and graduation. Further research is needed to ascertain the validity of characterizing Holland's (1973) construct of congruence in this manner.

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Course Characteristics of CACREP Community Counseling Entry-Level Core Areas

Ernest L. Cowger, Jr.

Forty-five CACREP-accredited community counseling preparation programs were surveyed to identify the manners in which they fulfill entry-level core course requirements. Curricular materials from the 32 responding programs were summarized, and suggestions were made about ways program descriptive materials might be clarified.

The professional debate that existed in 1985 (Vacc, 1985) regarding professional standards and accreditation criteria for programs in counseling continues. The Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP), established in 1981 (CACREP, 1981), is a major element in counselor education (Pate, 1990).

Since CACREP's inception, numerous counseling professionals have examined and discussed accreditation and surveyed accredited programs to discern their characteristics. Specific areas of study have included the ongoing professionalization process with its historical developments (Steinhauser & Bradley, 1983); the characteristics of the faculty, students, program, and admission standards (Miller & Sampson, 1984; Stickle & Schnacke, 1984); the consequences of meeting the accreditation standards (Vacc, 1985); faculty perceptions (Cecil & Comas, 1986); perceptions of agency administrators (Cook, Berman, Genco, Repka, & Shrider, 1986); and the types of students who enter programs in counselor education (Pate, 1990).

The four-year revision process for CACREP standards, to conclude in 1993, has sparked new debate in its various parts (Engels, 1991; Kandor & Bobby, 1991; Weinrach, 1991). Much of this debate has focused upon doctoral level program requirements (Altekruse, 1991; Brown, 1990; Lanning, 1990; Randolph, 1990; Vacc, 1990; Wittmer & Loesch, 1990) and specialty standards (Cowger, Hinkle, DeRidder, & Erk, 1991; Myers, Loesch, & Sweeney, 1991; Wilcoxon, 1990).

Little has been reported about the ways in which CACREP-accredited programs meet the entry-level core standards. Cecil and Comas (1986) reported the percentages of accredited programs offering the then-required generic core courses. Staff from all 25 programs accredited in 1984 responded as follows: 74% required a course in the content area of social and cultural foundations; 79% in both human growth and development and lifestyle and career development; 84% in statistics; 86% in supervised counseling internship; 90% in appraisal; 93% in research design; 98% in helping relationships, groups, and supervised field practicum; and 100% in supervised counseling laboratory.

More recently, Myers et al. (1991) reported survey responses obtained in 1987 from 237 counselor preparation programs that indicated whether the eight CACREP core curriculum areas were offered in their departments.

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Social and cultural foundations was lowest with 41%, followed by professional orientation, 74%; human growth and development, 76%; helping relationships, 80%; research and evaluation, 83%; appraisal, 86%; lifestyle and career development, 89%; and groups, 91%.

In the literature cited, evidence is lacking about the ways in which the CACREP-accredited programs meet the eight core curriculum areas. The study reported in this article attempted to explore and clarify how the CACREP-accredited community counseling programs meet the core curriculum requirements. Even though the CACREP (1982, 1987, 1988) standards have used various terms to refer to the specialty area with a community and agency orientation, this researcher refers to this specialty as community counseling.

Method

Program coordinators of the 45 CACREP-accredited community counseling programs were requested by letter in August, 1988, to participate in an investigation of their curricula. Coordinators were asked to mail copies of their Master's-level community counseling program curricula that included their common cores of courses. These courses should fulfill the eight content areas required for entry-level programs by CACREP (1982, 1987, 1988). Responses were received from a total of 32 schools, a 71% return. Two programs clearly delineated two separate degree options; thus, the total number of programs is equal to 34.

Results

Program Descriptions

The 32 responding institutions offered the following degrees: Master of Science (15), Master of Arts (8), Master of Education (3), Master of Science in Education (2), Education Specialist (2), and Master of Counseling (1). Two degree options, a Master of Arts or Master of Education (2) and a Master of Education or Master of Science (1), were offered by three programs. The length of the programs ranged from 45 to 72 semester hours, with a mean of 52 and a median of 48. The researcher converted the quarter hours reported by four institutions to semester hours.

Entry-Level Core Requirements

The program materials did not always report the exact number of hours that each program included in its entry-level core requirements or the manner in which these core areas were addressed. The number of separate titles these 34 programs utilized for each core area ranged from 18 to 35 (see Table 1). Since some programs offered more than one course in a core area, the number of courses does not equal the number of degree programs ($N = 34$) used in this study.

Some programs did not list courses with titles which obviously pertained to one or more core content areas (see Table 1). Only 65% of the programs included courses with titles that appeared to fulfill the social and cultural foundations area. In four other core areas, 85% to 97% of the programs seemed to meet the core requirements based on the course titles they listed. Ten programs listed courses from three core areas as elective possibilities. In contrast, 13 programs did not clearly mention either requiring or offering for elective credit a course in three core content areas.

Table 1

Number of Courses Listed by CACREP-Approved Community Counseling Programs for Entry-Level Core Areas

Content core areas	Separate titles	Required by name	Elective	Not mentioned
Human growth & development	35	29[a] (85%)	1	4
Social & cultural foundations	24	22 (65%)	6	6
Helping relationships	25	34 (100%)	0	0
Groups	18	34 (100%)	0	0
Lifestyle & career development	22	30 (88%)	3	1
Appraisal	33	34 (100%)	0	0
Research & evaluations	33	33[b] (97%)	0	1[c]
Professional orientation	29	33[d] (97%)	0	1

Note: Departmental programs responding, N = 32. Two programs clearly delineated two separate degree options, one in marriage and family and one in clinical mental health settings, thus total programs = 34.

[a] Two programs required as prerequisite, two required as undergraduate or graduate course, seven required as personality development/theory, two required personality development or human growth, and one required personality development or issues in counseling adults. [b]Two programs allowed a choice in research design or statistics. Twelve also required a course in statistics; one waived this requirement if undergraduate credit was on record. [c]This program required statistics instead of a course in research design. [d]Fifteen programs required a course as part of their community environmental area.

Thirty programs required a course in a content area outside of the core area; 25 of these programs offered elective options in these same content areas (see Table 2). The content areas for the required courses ranged in frequency from nine programs (abnormal psychology) to one (counseling older adults, organizational development, and stress management). Consultation skills and ethics/professional issues were both required by eight programs. Although five programs required marriage and/or family counseling, 22 programs offered it as an elective. Substance abuse counseling followed this with 15 elective offerings.

Table 2

Number of Programs with Required and Elective Course Content Areas Outside of Entry-Level Core Areas

Content areas	Required	Electives
Abnormal (& normal) psychology	9[a]	10[b]
Consultation skills	8	9
Ethics/professional issues in counseling	8	6
Substance abuse counseling	7	15
Marriage &/or family counseling	5	22
Psychodiagnostics	5	6
Advanced group counseling/practicum	4	7

(Table continues)

Table 2 (Continued)

Sexual behavior	4	15
Advanced seminar in community/agency counseling	3	0
Counseling children &/or adolescents	3	15
Crisis intervention	2	5
Group theory	2	0
Psychopharmacology	2	2
Using computers	2	1
Community resources	1	3
Counseling older adults	1	16
Organizational development for counselors	1	9
Stress management	1	4

Note: For course content area to be listed, at least one program (n = 30) required a course in that area.

[a]Two programs required as undergraduate or graduate credit, one program required as prerequisite, two programs required as psychopathology, and one offered psychopathology as optional. [b]Two programs offered as psychopathology.

The number of course titles in each core content area ranged from 22 to 35 total course offerings (see Table 3). Human growth and development, which included courses with personality development in their titles, was high with 35 separate titles and lifestyle and career development was low with 22. Research and evaluation was the content area with the single course title, methods of research in education, that was utilized most frequently, while groups was second and helping relationships was third. Of the 24 separate course titles for social and cultural foundations, only two had the same title.

Table 3
Course Titles Appearing Most Frequently in Each Core Content Area

Core content areas Course titles	Frequency
Human growth & development	
Human development	4
Developmental psychology	2
Life span development	2
Other titles appearing once (examples)	32
Dynamics of human behavior	
Personality theory & mental health	
The human experience	
Social & cultural foundations	
Counseling diverse populations	2
Multicultural counseling	2
Other titles appearing once (examples)	22
Counseling ethnic minorities	
Counseling strategies for special populations	
Cross-cultural counseling	

(Table continues)

Table 3 (Continued)

Course Titles Appearing Most Frequently in Each Core Content Area

Core content areas Course titles	Frequency
Helping relationships	
Theories of counseling	7
Counseling theory & practice	5
Counseling theory(ies)	4
Counseling theories & techniques	3
Theories & techniques of counseling	3
Other titles appearing once (examples)	20
Adolescent & child counseling	
Interpersonal relationships	
Psychological change strategies	
Groups	
Group counseling	9
Group theories & procedures/practice	5
Group dynamics	3
Group procedures	3
Group process	2
Techniques of group counseling	2
Other titles appearing once (examples)	12
Group counseling concepts	
Group leadership concepts	
Human relations in group counseling	
Lifestyle & career development	
Career development	4
Career development & information	3
Career development: Theory & practice	2
Lifestyle & career development	2
Vocational development	2
Other titles appearing once (examples)	17
Career counseling: Theory and practice	
Psychology of careers	
Vocational decisions & decision making	
Appraisal	
Individual appraisal	3
Appraisal in counseling	2
Tests & measurement	2
Other titles appearing once (examples)	30
Individual & group appraisal	
Measurement & evaluation concepts	
Psychological testing	
Research & evaluation	
Methods of reasearch in education	14
Introduction to research	6
Statistical methods in psychology/education	5
Research & statistics	2
Other titles appearing once (examples)	29
Applied descriptive statistics	
Statistics & research design: Conceptual	
The counselor as a scientist practitioner	

(Table continues)

Table 3 (Continued)
Course Titles Appearing Most Frequently in Each Core Content Area

Core content areas Course titles	Frequency
Professional orientation	
Introduction to counseling	4
Community (agency) counseling	3
Foundations of counseling	2
Fundamentals of counseling	2
Introduction to community (agency) counseling	2
Professional orientation	2
Other titles appearing once (examples)	23
Contemporary mental health counseling	
Implementation of counseling services	
Professional issues in counseling	

Discussion

The findings from this study provide curricular information concerning the entry-level core characteristics of CACREP-accredited community counseling programs. Even with the variation in detail of the materials furnished by each program coordinator, this researcher believes that these findings provide an accurate description of the programs surveyed. This study found that a large number of programs (65% to 100% per core area) required a course recognizable by name for each of the content core areas. This partially supports Weinrach's (1991) statement that "for all practical purposes, all CACREP-accredited programs look alike" (p. 493) in the core content areas.

Likewise, this study adds credence to an important finding of the National Board for Certified Counselors (NBCC). Based upon the results of their recently completed NBCC Work Behavior Study, National Counselor Examination (NCE) is being revised. The revised NCE will contain five work behavior clusters: fundamental counseling practices, counseling for career development, counseling groups, counseling families, and professional practice (Clawson, 1992). This present research reports that 22 programs offered the course content area marriage and/or family counseling as an elective and five programs required it, for a total of 27 out of 34 programs.

This similarity ceases when one looks at the 18 content areas outside of the entry-level core in which at least one course is required (see Table 2). Thirty of the 32 programs required at least one course in one of these 18 areas. The dissimilarity broadens even more due to the number of electives offered for those non-core course areas required by different programs. Cowger et al. (1991) findings that community counseling preparation programs offered 36 distinctly different specialty areas with a six-hour course minimum provide additional evidence of significant program variations.

The results of this study essentially support Cecil and Comas (1986) in their findings concerning the percentage of accredited programs offering courses in the entry-level core areas. The respective percentages for the 34 programs in this study and their survey are: human growth and development, 85% and 79%; social and cultural foundations, 65% and 74%; lifestyle and career development, 88% and 79%; appraisal, 100% and 90%; and

research and evaluation, 97% and 93%. For those programs that do not require courses recognizable by the title in all of the core areas, one can only assume that these programs incorporate their content in other courses or that they actually require students to take some courses they list as electives since CACREP requires these content areas for accreditation.

To minimize misunderstanding, the author recommends that counselor education staff more clearly portray course content in materials prepared to describe their programs. In a practical sense, this would provide more program clarity to their prospective students. Second, it would provide clearer evidence that accredited programs are meeting core content area requirements. This recommendation for a revision of program descriptions should answer a concern Weinrach (1991) raised in regard to tentative or noncommittal responses from the CACREP staff about specific program questions. Such changes also will help personnel who are planning community counseling preparation programs understand how accredited programs meet their content area requirements, and they can use this knowledge for their own program development.

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Professional Practices in Counseling . . .

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Embracing the Buddha: Reflections on the Emergence of Eclecticism

Dwight Webb

Eclecticism is lauded as a valid and valuable approach to counseling theory and practice.

In graduate school in the 1960s, it was important to take a firm theoretical position. You needed to be a Freudian, a Rogerian, a Behaviorist or some other such follower of one of our maor gurus. As students, we were trying to find our way; we needed to stand on firm ground, as we struggled to define ourselves. Most graduate programs had a particular "orientation."

Allegiances were formed between students and programs. We identified ourselves as budding professionals by aligning with mentors from particular schools of thought. In those early days of our relatively young profession, the basic theorists of counseling drew rather tight and pure boundaries around their ideas in order to define and establish the viability of their respective approaches. To be integrative or eclectic was to run the risk of being seen as not having the necessary knowledge nor the courage of your convictions to take a stand.

While these major mentors were not overly critical of each other, there were lively debates such as the classic between Skinner and Rogers (1962), and the lesser known, but powerful, encounter between Patterson and Krumboltz (1970). For the most part there was a cordial if cool attitude between competing schools of thoughts as each experimented with and exponded ideas. As a point of view narrowed into focus, alternative theories were downplayed or ignored. Rogers, Pearls, and Ellis were each saying in effect . . . "We think our way is the best way." Witness the competitive comparisons drawn from the film series with "Gloria" (Rogers & Shostrom, 1968), which featured three giant theoreticians-practitioners of our time.

Beware of the Dogma

To their great credit, these theoreticians each defined a set of cohesive and logical ideas which could be believed in, and to a greater or lesser extent, replicated over time with consistent and predictable outcomes. But, as their theories became highly developed, with extended implications, they tended to become somewhat dogmatic in their refusal to acknowledge the contributing ideas of alternative explanations. Such dogmatism created a

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kind of rigidity, and devotees of particular theories took on quasi-religious, sometimes messianic, fervor in their adherence to "the truth."

Belief Systems

We all have doctrines, myths, and symbols which undergird our belief systems. We build in filters and monitors to maintain and extend our ideologies, for example:

System I:

"I believe it is best to be well-grounded in one theoretical orientation in order to maximize effectiveness."

The single theory practitioner, in effect, says: "How can I fit this client's issues into my theoretical construct and design a compatible intervention?"

System II:

"I believe it is best to be well-grounded in all major theories of counseling in order to maximize effectiveness."

The eclectic practitioner, in effect, says: "How can I find the most appropriate interventions from all the existing constructs which will best fit the needs of my client?"

One interesting and serendipitous, if not paradoxical, outcome of the "Gloria" film series (Rogers & Shostrom, 1968) is that, while each theory was demonstrated in its purist form by a founding father, seen together the theories served to awaken a generation of emerging professionals to the possibilities of integrating viable differential approaches. We witnessed all three of Gloria's encounters as worthwhile, and all three as incomplete. These brilliant films galvanized the importance of broadening our perspectives in presenting the value of various theories as applied by the masters. We came to see that each of these practitioner-theorists dealt with an important piece of the elephant, but none considered or responded to the whole animal.

The Big Picture

Eclectic

- Selecting what appears to be best in various doctrines, methods or styles (*Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary*, 1979).
- Not following any one system as a philosophy or medicine, but selecting and using what is best in all systems (*Random House Dictionary*, 1966).

The ideal eclectic counselor has the warmth, congruence, transparency, concreteness, genuineness, non-judgmental acceptance, and unconditional positive regard of Carl Rogers, as well as the imaginative, spontaneous, intuitive, and integrative emphases on awareness of Fritz Perls, and the incisive clarity of seeing the relationship of thoughts to feelings and the distortions in assumptions and consequent behaviors which Albert Ellis points out so persistently.

Clearly, being eclectic means being flexible and not dogmatic. It means being open, and of course that means being open to the old criticisms of

"not knowing the ground upon which you stand." This is foolishness. The truth is, we need to know *all* of the ground upon which we stand.

We have always known intuitively, at some level, that no single theory or school of thought may lay claim to the final word on every facet of human behavior and experience. To adhere to a single-theory viewpoint in the practice of counseling is to inhibit the development of creative and effective interventions which may be drawn from other sources. It is important to understand how our major theories interrelate, overlap, merge, and complement one another, in giving a more dynamic and complete picture of the whole person.

Eclecticism does not mean that we should not go deeply into the frontier of a particular theory. For the eclectic, there is no quarrel with any theory. Indeed, the eclectic practitioner applauds the depth of acquisition as each theory extends its knowledge and the edge of growth. Such scholarship provides more tools for the person who is open to new ideas, and more honing of the cutting edge of interventions.

Venturing Toward Integration

It is not easy to leave the safe anchorage of embracing a particular theoretical harbor. I recall being a bit shocked when John Krumboltz, one of my early mentors, said something to the effect that "I'll use anything that works." I thought this was a radical departure from behavioral concepts until I realized it does not necessarily violate the principles of reinforcement. I simply had him too tightly categorized as a "pure behaviorist," and kept him in my Skinner-box bias. Letting go of preconceived notions was very releasing for me. I began to validate my own intuitive approaches and realized that any divergent paths which I had taken in my thinking were not heretical.

My development was expanded to more broad perspectives in 1980 when my friend and former student, Gay Hendricks, invited me to teach Summer School at the University of Colorado in Colorado Springs. I met his colleague Barry Weinhold, and in my collegial friendship with both of them, I began to learn about transpersonal psychology. Transpersonal approaches acknowledge the spiritual dimension of human experience, and attempt to integrate the wisdom from Eastern philosophies into the common ground of Western thought. I began to see that various ways of helping people, including meditation, massage, acupuncture, acupressure, yoga, dance and music therapies, nutrition and fitness programs, process psychology, adventure-based counseling, and so on, were viable approaches for various aspects of human development. Transpersonal psychology embraces the total human experience of mind, body, and spirit. It is by definition eclectic, allowing for various and diverse applications to each of these domains in order to accommodate the individual differences in a multicultural, multilayered society. Eclecticism encourages the integration of various approaches because it acknowledges the wholeness of human experience, encouraging growth potential at each edge.

I came to see that eclecticism is the confluence of all the streams of our thinking. It is the mainstream from the tributaries. At times, as eclectic counselors, we will be teachers, giving of our knowledge and ideas to generate cognitive/behavioral interventions with clients. We will also be listening carefully and emphatically, reflecting, perhaps role playing, or using

visualization exercises in our attempts to influence our clients positively. We may invite clients to become co-experimenters with us in contracting for "in-vivo" behavioral rehearsal as homework. Our responsibility to our clients, who entrust us as their guides, is to help them to find the cognitive, behavioral, affective, and spiritual balance they are seeking in their lives.

Current Context

We are, in any waking moment, impacted by our cultural, familial, gender, and social histories as well by our opportunities, hopes, dreams, and visions of a future we want to create and work toward. In our expanding awareness, we strive to integrate past, present, and future as we go about our daily lives involving relationships, family, work, sex, religion, health, and the myriad factors of coping with stress in all these domains. All of this is done with great fluidity of interaction among our affective, behavioral, and cognitive experiences. We are extremely complex and unique in our texture, tone, and vitality.

We are individually and collectively becoming more aware of the importance of the mind-body-spirit connection in every human context. Every fiber in the quiltwork of our culture is permeated with psychological ideas. We don't have to look far to find support groups, communication workshops, employee assistance programs, shelters for the abused, programs for the addicted, fitness centers, and personal growth institutes, to acknowledge only some of the more obvious wellness stations in our lives. *Newsweek* magazine (Leerhsen, Lewis, Pomper, Davenport, & Nelson, 1990) featured a cover article on support groups and reported that 15 million Americans are involved with such self-help activity. Tens of thousands of groups around the country support persons dealing with issues such as alcohol, cancer, gambling, incest, overeating, singleness, and sex. Frank Riessman is quoted in this article as saying, "The social climate is such that it has actually become fashionable to be 'in recovery' from everything from drug addition to spouse abuse" (p. 52).

My observation is that most often individual practitioners are pushing out the frontiers as they experiment, create, integrate, and refine their applied blend of science and art in a particular theory or interpretations of several theories. The ideas being published in self-help books by the likes of Dale Carnegie (1948) and Shakti Gawain (1978), to John Bradshaw (1990) and Sam Keen (1991), have made an enormous contribution to our psychological awareness and ultimate sense of well-being. Hundreds of publications help translate what is known into everyday practical applications in the common human experience. As our knowledge is directly applied toward preventative and developmental issues, we are using all we know, and we are eager to know more. As eclectic counselors, it is our challenge and privilege to facilitate the optimal development of persons in every facet of healthy and creative life expression.

Summary

It is imperative that we continually examine our approaches, and awaken to the various contributions each theoretical position makes to the whole of our understanding. Evolution does not favor closing off options. We must acknowledge the balancing of body, mind, and spirit, and respond creatively to the integration of these too often fragmented dimensions of human experience. We must consider all that we know, as we choose our

best responses and interventions while staying flexible and focused on all that is going on with our clients. We need ideas from every theoretical orientation in order to maximize our professional performance. To fail to bring all of our knowledge of what is known into our work with clients is no less than irresponsible and unethical.

Entering the complexity of the 21st century, we are faced with a growing awareness of the interrelatedness of all human experience. We are daring to believe that we can maximize our potential to be fully human, to be fully affective and fully cognitive, on our growing edges behaviorally, and with the inner wisdom to experience our spirituality. We are striving to express our wholeness and to discover our relationship with all of life, in a balanced way, as we search for meaning and purpose. It is an awesome, beautiful, and often bewildering experience to contemplate. We need to embrace, not kill, all the Buddhas on our road to professional development (Kopp, 1972). Our mentors are not Gods, they are simply our guides.

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Using the Mental Status Exam in Counseling

J. Sue Austin, Elizabeth Partridge, and Joe Bitner

The Mental Status Exam (MSE), a collection of observational and interview data used to assess psychological and behavioral functioning of clients, is recommended for use by counselors. Because of the changing nature of clients, counselors are encouraged to become familiar with the MSE as an assessment tool that will aid them in diagnosis and treatment in many settings.

The Mental Status Exam (MSE) (Crary & Johnson, 1982) is commonly used by psychologists and psychiatrists for a variety of purposes, including screening for psychopathology, differential diagnoses for admissions, disability determinations, and the assessment of therapeutic progress. Although counselors often consider it a tool used only by other professionals, the MSE can be an effective tool in agency and school settings, as well as in private practice. A school counselor may use the MSE for early screening and referral of seriously disturbed students. This short, easily administered instrument is readily understood and accepted by the professionals who receive referrals. The use of the MSE is a way for counselors to improve their ability to recognize and document the intensity and type of psychopathology substantially (Fong, 1990). In addition, use of a common language improves communication among professionals.

Description of MSE

The Mental Status Examination is a structured interview which is designed to assess the psychological functioning of an individual. Completion requires meeting with the client long enough to collect observational and interview data (approximately 30 to 60 minutes). Results offer a verbal picture of a person's mental functioning at a given point in time in a number of different areas. Information obtained through the MSE may be noted on a checklist composed of five major symptom classes: physical appearance, behavior, emotional functioning, perceptual processes, and thinking (Ginsberg, 1985). Each category contains several symptoms which are marked "Not Present," "Slight or Occasional," or "Marked or Repeated." The rating is based on the number and severity of the problems. For example, the first symptom under appearance is "physically unkempt, unclean." Cleanliness and neatness would be scored "Not Present." Relative cleanliness with long, straggly hair needing a shampoo would receive a "Slight or Occasional" mark. Straggly, dirty hair; long, dirty, unfiled nails; and an offensive body odor would be checked "Marked or Repeated." When conducting the MSE, it is important to look for the unusual or unexpected while keeping an open mind to rational explanations for the person's appearance or behavior. An outline of the MSE categories may be found in the appendix.

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Categories of the MSE

Appearance

The outward features of the individual, including clothing, manner of dress, and degree of personal hygiene and self-care are included in the appearance category. A lack of self-care may reflect depression or a loss of capacity to care adequately for one's personal appearance. Inconsistencies in dress and grooming can alert the counselor to possible internal or social conflicts the client is experiencing.

Behavior

The overt actions of the individual, verbal and/or nonverbal, are observed in the behavior category. These include posture, facial expression, general body movements, and speech. Bizarre behavior or speech suggests the client is experiencing severe psychopathology. Clients who are substance abusers can exhibit impaired psychomotor functioning and may appear more awkward and less attentive to the external environment.

Emotions

Affect, the feeling state inferred from overt behavior and verbal expressions, and mood, the main feeling deduced from the client during the interview, are the two components of the emotions category. A person who is able to experience strong emotions and not be dominated by them is more likely to be able to cope with current circumstances. Serious psychological problems may be indicated by an enduring, negative affect. On the other hand, an unexpected absence of affect or inappropriate affect may point to schizophrenia.

Perceptual Processes

The ways in which one perceives oneself and the world are determinants of the perceptual processes category. Abnormal perceptions include hallucinations and illusions. Hallucinations, which may involve any sensory organ, are perceptions that are not based on reality, while illusions, usually visual or auditory, are misperceptions of reality. In order to receive and process information about oneself and one's world correctly, intact perceptual processes are necessary. Abnormal perceptions are indicative of psychosis or organic brain syndromes.

Thinking

This final and probably most complex category of the MSE includes:

1. Intellectual functioning, which refers to consciousness, abstract thinking, and attention as well as intellectual capacity. Impairment may indicate organicity, mental retardation, or psychosis.

2. Orientation, or the client's understanding of person, place, and time. This information is usually revealed throughout the interview rather than through a specific set of structured questions. A person who is disoriented may be suffering from organicity or severe psychosis.

3. Insight, or the ability to understand and accept responsibility for one's problems. A lack of insight may indicate psychosis or organic brain syndrome.

4. Judgment, which refers to the way a person handles real life situations. Poor judgment may result in harm to the person or others, or failure to accomplish goals. Impaired judgment may be found with psychosis, organic brain syndrome, or mental retardation.

5. Memory, or one's ability to recall immediate, recent, and remote events. Inability to recall events occurring within the last ten seconds, within the last few months, and in the distant past may indicate anxiety, psychosis, repression, organicity, impaired intellectual functioning, or guardedness and deception.

6. Thought content, which refers to the type of thought an individual expresses. Abornmal thought may include obsessions, compulsions, depersonalization, suicidal or homicidal ideation, delusions, and ideas of reference and influence. The presence of one or more of these types of pathological thought content prevents effective functioning. In addition, psychosis or other psychopathology may be indicated.

7. Stream of thought, the speed of the thought flow, as well as the continuity with which ideas and thoughts are expressed. When there is a disturbance in stream of thought, high levels of tension and anxiety are usually found. Other problems indicated by such disturbances are brain disorders and psychosis.

Conclusion

As noted earlier, the MSE can be an effective tool for counselors when used in combination with other information such as medical history, police reports, and information from the family. Most counselors who use the MSE learned the techniques through experience in mental health clinics or hospitals. Unfortunately, very few university counseling programs provide instruction in or experience with conducting the MSE. However, a desire to learn and practice with the methods obtained from available literature (Crary & Johnson, 1982; Faiver, 1986; Othmer & Othmer, 1989; Rosenthal & Akiskal, 1987; Wood, 1987) will enable the counselor to become adept at understanding and using the MSE. With an estimated 53 million cases of major maladaptive behavior in the United States (Coleman, Butcher, & Carson, 1984), competency in the use of the MSE is essential for today's counselor.

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Appendix

Mental Status Exam

I. Appearance
   - A. Physically unkempt, unclean
   - B. Clothing disheveled, dirty
   - C. Clothing atypical, unusual, bizarre
   - D. Unusual physical characteristics

II. Behavior
   - A. Posture
   - B. Facial expression
   - C. General body movements
   - D. Amplitude and quality of speech
   - E. Doctor-patient relationship

III. Feeling (Affect and Mood)

IV. Perception

V. Thinking
   - A. Intellectual functioning
   - B. Orientation
   - C. Insight
   - D. Judgment
   - E. Memory
   - F. Thought content
   - G. Stream of thought

Three Kinds of Patients Who Need Confrontation, With Emphasis on Sex Offenders

Russell Eisenman

Drug users, sex offenders, and prisoners-in-general need confrontation in psychotherapy to overcome their denial. Sex offenders use conscious and unconscious denial, and need lifelong treatment if they are to avoid recidivisim.

In the debate between Lazarus (1990) and Strupp (1989, 1990) the issue of confrontation in psychotherapy was discussed. Lazarus favored the use of confrontation in some circumstances, while Strupp was, in general, opposed. Lazarus mentioned the approach of Albert Ellis as one which involves confrontation; Strupp (1989) would apparently rule out confrontation.

There are, however, three major types of clients not addressed by Lazarus and Strupp, for whom confrontation is needed in psychotherapy. Drug users, sex offenders, and prisoners need confrontation, since they frequently engage in strong denial and strong resistance to therapy.

1. *Drug Users.* Serious users of drugs often have problems which they refuse to face. This is perhaps the most obvious area where confrontation is needed. Many drug treatment programs rely heavily on confrontation, believing that the frequent denial of drug users will prevent any other kind of approach from succeeding. For example, some programs make drug-using clients wear diapers when their behavior seems to be infantile and self-defeating. Others bring "indictments" against patients, which the other members of the therapy group support. These actions are taken to deal with the incredible denial often engaged in by people with severe substance abuse problems. As Director of the Substance Abuse Program in a prison, I saw many serious drug users who claimed they had no drug problems. Our staff used confrontation, as well as the more conventional group and individual therapy approaches, to help them see their drug problems.

2. *Sex Offenders.* Sex offenders, like drug users, often engage in denial, and confrontation is one approach to reach them. Otherwise, they can commit the most heinous of crimes but claim they did nothing wrong. For example, in the prison treatment program I worked with a 22-year old who had molested many children. But, when he was first arrested and put in jail he said, "Why am I in jail? I have done nothing wrong." Confrontation with sex offenders is often necessary to help them get past their refusal to see what they have done.

3. *Prisoners.* Prisoners, in general, need confrontation to help them see the patterns of their lives, and to help them admit to responsibility for what they have done. I wonder if Strupp (1989, 1990) is thinking of middle-class people, who often form the clientele for psychotherapists, when he advocates a non-confrontational approach. Perhaps an approach based on

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active, sympathetic listening would work with such clients. But, with drug users, sex offenders, and prisoners-in-general — all clients who are given to extreme denial — direct confrontation mixed with traditional therapy is often required. From my perspective, psychoanalytic approaches and non-directive approaches often fail with these clients.

Two Kinds of Denial in Sex Offenders

From working with sex offenders, I postulate that there are two kinds of denial which they employ. The source of the denial may be quite different, depending upon which kind it is. Thus, treatment may have to be different for each type of denial.

The first kind of denial I have observed is conscious. The sex offender knows he has violated the law and seeks to cover up his offenses. Thus, he will say, "I only stroked her back," when, in reality, genital penetration occurred. The offender believes, quite accurately, that if the extent of his behavior were known he would be in more trouble.

The second kind of denial could be called unconscious, since the offender seems to have no sense he did anything wrong. The behavior is so embedded into his personality that it seems normal to him. For others to take offense is surprising or absurd to the sex offender. What, he reasons, could be wrong with me, a man, having sex with a little boy. The offender may not appreciate the degree of coercion he used, especially if it is psychological coercion, such as offering a young child candy for allowing him to do certain things.

Source of the Denial

Where does this second, "unconscious" kind of denial come from? Although it is difficult to know, one basis may be the sexual abuse suffered by the offender. Every sex offender I worked with in a prison treatment program for youthful male offenders had, himself, been sexually abused, usually at an early age, and usually by the father. In this situation the masculine model for the child, with whom the child can be expected to identify, does things which society condemns. But, to the child, this is what males do, since he had no other basis to judge reality. According to this line of reasoning, the child internalizes the act of abuse, seeing it as the proper thing to do, and in turn abuses others.

Sometimes my patients were angry about the sexual abuse they had suffered, and appeared to act out the anger by hurting others. This is a rather primitive way of getting to feel better, but it also appears to be a human way, in that humans who have been hurt will often hurt others. The idea that they have been hurt and should therefore show empathy to others is too abstract for many, especially children, to understand. Thus, a hurt child sometimes becomes angry and then aggressive.

Optimism or Pessimism?

Is there any basis for optimism in terms of changing sex offenders into law-abiding people? Pessimism would seem indicated by the high recidivism rates among sex offenders (Eisenman, 1991a, 1991b, in press; Rice, Quinsey, & Harris, 1991). On the other hand, some do seem to change

their behavior after treatment; treatment works for some, but for some reason does not work for others (Eisenman, 1991a, 1991b, in press; Rice Quinsey, & Harris, 1991).

My experience with incarcerated sex offenders suggests a continuing tendency toward committing sex crimes. For those who want to change, relapse prevention would seem to be the best approach (Laws, 1989). A model resembling that of Alcoholics Anonymous is needed, in which the sex offender admits he will always be sick, and seeks help from a support group of similar others. If similar others are not available in a community, trained therapists could be used, so that the offender would have someone to meet with on a regular basis.

No one should expect prison or psychotherapy alone to prevent further sex offenses. Lifelong post-treatment assistance is necessary; the best approach is a regular support group or therapy situation to which the sex offender in the community can turn for help.

Summary

Drug users, sex offenders, and prisoners-in-general usually need confrontation in psychotherapy, followed by a lifelong relapse prevention approach.

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Building the Counseling Profession...

"Building the Counseling Profession" highlights significant events and offerings in the history and the development of the counseling profession in California. This was the lead article in a special theme issue of the CPGA Journal (the CACD Journal).

New Look in Counseling and Guidance for the '70s and the Twenty-First Century: A Background Paper

Geraldine Rickman and Leonard Mitchell

The Rockefeller Counseling Project aims to expand the skills of counselors and to move toward a new profession of human development ecology.

Counseling and guidance as a profession is on the brink of its own revolution. Started principally to assist students in the selection of their major subjects with an eye to preparation for a specific vocation, counseling and guidance have spread to cover other aspects of a person's psychological and emotional relationship to education and are now reaching out to involve the parents, agencies and individuals in the community, teachers, administrators, counselor educators, and others in a concerted effort to "redefine" the process and substance of counseling and guidance in an urban and technological society.

The use of the term "counseling" or even "guidance" in this paper is dictated by the fact that there is not yet general acceptance for new terminology that better describes, in a progressive way, the future role for persons now in the field, for example, human development ecologist, human environmental psychologist, human environment manager. The point, of course, is that the profession of counseling as practiced in traditional educational settings must be abandoned in the future and replaced by a new profession whose group of functions is more appropriately encompassed by human developmental ecology. Until that occurs in a formal way, the trend in counseling should begin to reflect the importance of directing people in general, especially young people, toward the development of skills and capabilities that will permit them to manipulate their environments, understand the developmental processes involved in decision-making about career development and social development, and, above all, adapt to a rapidly changing environment as well as plan to adapt the environment to their special needs.

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Geraldine Rickman is (was) Director of the Rockefeller Counseling Project and was President of the COPE Foundation.

Leonard Mitchell serves (served) as Consultant to the Project and Vice President of the COPE Foundation.

The San Diego Unified School District, the Graduate Department of Counselor Education at San Diego State College, and the COPE Foundation, with the support of a $200,000 Rockefeller Foundation grant, have undertaken a new approach in urban counseling that recognizes the need to move toward a new model in order to serve the needs of students and the community effectively. This experiment promises to have significant impact upon secondary education in San Diego, and in time, the State of California and the Nation.

The Rockefeller Counseling Project is a cooperative program which is designed to give urban guidance and counseling a new look in the decade of the '70s. The project is attempting to *develop*, through influence on the reconfiguration of the state college counselor education curriculum, counseling personnel (human development ecologists) who can function effectively in the context of a changing urban scene. Through participation of administrative, teaching, counseling, and paraprofessional personnel of secondary schools, the project is attempting to *redevelop*, or "retread" through in-service training, the present personnel responsible who find themselves already overwhelmed by change, or as Toffler puts it, "overcome by the disease of future shock" in a fast-moving, urban, technological society.

"Our schools will continue to turn out industrial men until we teach young people the skills necessary to identify and clarify, if not reconcile, conflicts in their own value systems."

"The curriculum of tomorrow must thus include not only an extremely wide range of data-oriented courses, but a strong emphasis on future-relevant behavioral skills. It must combine variety of factual content with universal training in what might be termed 'life know-how.' It must find ways to do both at the same time, transmitting one in circumstances or environments that produce the other" (Toffler, *Future Shock*).

A change in the way education occurs (process) and in the content of education is essential to the survival of our society. Peter Drucker, in *The Age of Discontinuity*, points out that "yesterday's educators had no choice but to extend the only school they had, the only school they knew. Their customers would have resented it had they been offered anything but the school they had come to envy as the mark of privilege. *But the result is a school that deforms rather than forms.* It is a school of boredom, of lack of stimulation, of lack of achievement, and lack of satisfaction. I am not surprised that the kids riot. I am surprised at their patience, considering how bored most of them are in school most of the time" (emphasis added).

How then can a democratic society equip children of this nation, regardless of class, race, religion, or national origin, in such a way that they will realize their potential and be able to participate fully in American life? What will life be like in the future? Which people in education can best help prepare students to cope, while at the same time elminating the boredom identified by Drucker? Some people may disagree with the premise that the counselor is that important person in the educational structure capable of *helping* to provide answers, but the Rockefeller Project, looking forward to the evolution of a new type of counselor, exists because of the need to explore this premise. The experiences of the writers, coupled with an extensive review of the literature, suggest that these counseling and guidance personnel may be the most overlooked, underrated change agents in the educational structure.

The Problem

"New Look in Counseling and Guidance for the '70s and Twenty-First Century" was planned and developed to assist counselors (administrators, teachers, counselors, paraprofessionals) in coping with change and handling the "future shock" wave affecting them as individuals and their roles in the educational community. Some of the problems, identified by the individuals involved as important to deal with, are:

1. *Role conflict in light of changing goals in education*

   Personnel in the first seminar of this counseling institute pointed out their distress in determining primary responsibility. Is it to the students or to the organization? Further, the stated commitment of the district to order change through review of administrative responsibility and the development of a program programming, planning, budgeting, and evaluation system has increased anxiety about role definitions at the school sites, increased accountability for actions by all school personnel, and the potential shift from a "custody" role with students to a "developmental, creative, inquiry" process, which is generally unfamiliar to most educators.

2. *Cultural shock related to a lack of knowledge and information about minorities, the role of women in society, the youth revolution and recognition of subscribers that are here to stay*

3. *Personal conflict*

   Concern here centers around fear of risk-taking, understanding relationships to colleagues and to power centers in the structure, status, reality orientation (lack of), personal needs versus needs of students and other constituents, communications with others (hearing but not understanding), patterns of institutional racism, political relationships in a bureaucratic setting, and personal problems and their effect on professional development.

4. *Intergroup conflict and its resolution*

   Administrators, counselors, teachers, and paraprofessionals involved in the first seminar expressed a desire to learn more about group behavior, utilization of group techniques in solving student problems, and concern for their individual development in group settings. Problems have been encountered in group settings that are interracial, multilevel (administrators, teachers, counselors, community aides, paraprofessionals), and interdisciplinary. Individuals have difficulty handling their prejudices, perceptions, and evaluations of others in the group in a positive rather than a negative manner.

5. *Handling new information and personnel resources*

   The difficulty here is the overwhelming amount of new data available to help individuals determine career possibilities, make choices regarding their roles in new and evolving social settings, determine what types of information should be in curricula, and select methods and means for identifying information.

6. *The use of power and establishment of power relationships*

   The idea of educators having "power" to make change is difficult to inject. Dealing with manipulation (control of one's environment) as a positive skill is slow, but the "reality orientation" of the program is

designed to show that people have the potential for living better as they become involved in the assertion of power and participate in changing the environmental forces which control their lives.

Objectives of the Rockefeller Counseling Project

1. Develop a counseling team that will successfully integrate professional counseling personnel with a variety of other personnel resources, for example, administrators, teachers, paraprofessionals (peer counselors, counselor aides, new career trainees, and so forth).
2. Establish a model for an in-service development and training program for counseling personnel in the San Diego Unified School District that will have potential for national replication.
3. Provide a new atmosphere that will bring about attitudinal changes in participating personnel, using positively oriented methods and materials for personal growth and development.
4. Compile data and information which will establish a basis for developing new types of certification possibilities in the field of counselng and guidance.
5. Establish a working relationship that will continue between the San Diego Unified School District and the San Diego State College Department of Counselor Education.
6. Effect constructive curricular changes in the content of and manner in which courses in counselor education at San Diego State relate to the urban context, change, and the new type of counselor needed for the '70s and the twenty-first century.
7. Provide for scholarly input into the field of counseling and guidance through articles, papers, and so forth. Information so prepared will be widely disseminated within the counseling community and the larger educational community.
8. Provide effective evaluation of the program in terms of the stated objectives.

This project deals with personnel who work with students, but its overall impact on the students should be significant as a result of the anticipated changes in the attitudes, behavior, and methods employed by their teachers, counselors, administrators, parents, and others involved in the educational process.

The Program of the Rockefeller Counseling Project

"Anticipatory information," writes psychologist Hugh Bowen, "allows . . . a dramatic change in performance." Esther Lloyd-Jones indicates that guidance personnel workers—all educators, in fact—need to build and strengthen the bridges between the social-cultural (political) sciences and the practice of guidance in the belief that, in a very real way, concepts can change us and our world, especially by providing a new base for professional practice.

"At some point, if he or she is competent to do so, a guidance-personnel worker can become *an analyst of human problems, not only in the counseling booth, but of human problems in the society that has helped to cause*

them and that exacerbates them. So he or she inevitably becomes involved with all kinds of problems for which professional preparation as it is presently offered in universities, has not necessarily prepared him or her (emphasis added) (Lloyd-Jones, *Social and Cultural Foundations of Guidance).*

This program sees itself providing anticipatory information for dealing with future change building bridges between the social-cultural-political sciences and counseling, and placing a high value on the role of the counselor (human development ecologist) in dealing with human problems of individuals and society in an environment of fast-paced change.

The program plan views information as flowing, evolving, interacting elements which shed light upon areas of concern only when viewed holistically within a sociological or environmental context. Our professional experiences and review of relevant literature indicate the great need to innovate in the professional preparation of counseling personnel designed to strengthen the interdisciplinary foundations of their work. Moreover, an interdisciplinary (or multi-disciplinary) approach to information increases the trainees' options for the selection of conceptual tools for the diagnosis of problems. Unfortunately, in the past and even now in most higher educational institutions, knowledge is compartmentalized, and the nature of instruction and the reward systems for complying to the present format are often detrimental to the assimilation of useful knowledge from disciplines other than one's own. This program seeks to instill new attitudinal perspective in the trainees about utilization of non-educational personnel and their information resources in helping solve some of the problems of education.

Educators, therefore, must begin to interact with people outside the field in order to understand what changes may possibly be wrought *without* their involvement, or, indeed, in spite of it.

Visibility of the Program

One year ago it would not have been possible to predict the changes already taking place, but the presence of the Rockefeller Counseling Program, the feedback it has provided to site administrators and district personnel, and the information it is yielding as it progresses clearly indicate that it has had an impact already. The convergence of this program with the times, the recognition that "things cannot continue as they are," and the pressure from students and parents to do something" about counseling have all provided the necessary environment for counseling to take a quantum leap in this district.

Can it be done elsewhere? We believe it can. The *process* by which change occurs can be replicated, we believe, and the remainder of the program will yield information — positive or negative or a little of both — to determine just how counseling can be changed in the future into a new profession of *human development ecology.*

In the final analysis, bringing about this new profession will rest heavily upon the professionals responsible for training our educators and counselors.

Therefore, the Rockefeller Counseling Project, in conjunction with the department, sponsored a Lecture Series. The anticipation is that the professionals will chart an exciting future plan that will aid them in more rapidly meeting the need for *human development ecologists.* It is from this

lecture series the articles for this theme issue of the *CPGA Journal* were derived.

The Future of the Program

The program is planned for three years. The second year will begin the process of developing counseling team models *on school sites* and continue the process of in-service education for the personnel involved in this effort. Year three should see the formal adoption of the counseling team approach in one or more models developed during the Year Two. In-service training will continue.

Planning beyond Year One and program operation will depend upon funding possibilities, either external or district-generated. The prospects for funding from tax-generated dollars are dim. If federal or private monies are not obtained, the program's continuance is in jeopardy, in spite of what appears to be a change in attitude and priority about counseling in the district. We will work to ensure its continuance. More important, however, will be the position of those persons who have participated in the program. Will they work to ensure the program's continuance? That is part of the involvement. We shall see.

The Personal Side of Counseling . . .

"The Personal Side of Counseling" highlights feelings, opinions, and attitudes within and about the counseling profession.

"Touch Someone"

by Josie Teal

Touch someone whenever you can,
As tenderly ar you can –
Who knows if you will have the chance
To see that one again?

The ones we see today
Were never meant to stay.
A loving touch can mean so much
As one lives from day to day.

Share a smile with a lovely child
Whose parents are not around–
Who knows the effect the smile might have–
What good will it do to frown?

Think of someon who may be alone–
Give that person a call.
We make life what it is–
The pain, the joy–and all.

Josie Teal is Head Counselor-Dean, Benjamin Franklin Middle School, San Francisco Unified School District.

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